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No. 2064: November 15, 1920

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Volume IX, Number 1

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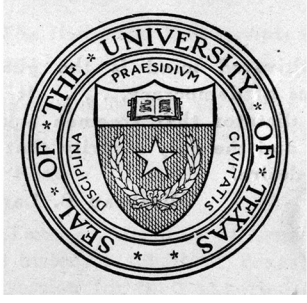

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The benefits of education and of useful knowledge, generally diffused through a community, are essential to the preservation of a free government.

Sam Houston

Cultivated mind is the guardian genius of democracy. . . . It is the only dictator that freemen acknowledge and the only security that freemen desire.

Mirabeau B. Lamar

The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin

Volume IX, Number 1

CONTENTS

The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin is issued in Novmber, February, and May. The history teachers of Texas are urged to use it as the medium of expression for their experience and ideals and to help make it as practicable and useful as possible by contributing articles, suggestions, criticisms, questions, personal items, and local news concerning educational matters in general. Copies will be sent free on application to any history teacher in Texas.

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THE TECHNIQUE OF THE SKETCH MAP

In a previous article on this same subject appearing in *The School Review* for September, 1916, the writer developed the thesis that any teaching of historical geography to be fruitful must make the student in his thinking associate political areas with physical features; that in striving to attain this aim the teacher requires every aid to visualization that can be requisitioned; that the desk outline map, whether carefully or carelessly used, is a step in advance; but that the most effective means yet devised for compelling a student really to master the subject is the sketch-map. The article went on to show that the wider use of the sketch-map method is retarded chiefly by the lack of a developed technique for its use; that, if teachers could be shown how they could with relative ease teach students to draw quickly the whole or a part of the country with whose history they are dealing, a large number of them would rapidly avail themselves of it. The article concluded with a statement of the principles, a knowledge of which helps one to analyse and draw a country, and with an application of these principles specifically to the drawing of the coast-line of Europe. The purpose of the present article is to continue this exposition of the technique by showing how the method has been developed in the writer's own classes at the University of Chicago, and more recently at the Rice Institute.

In the previous article it was shown that one of the results of applying the principles of *analogy, relationship, proportion, analysis into line,* and *unit of measure,* in the case of Europe is to develop a *triangular framework* which serves as a guide in drawing the coast-line, helps to keep the general proportions correct, and provides a unit of measure. What I wish to show next is how to secure an internal starting point for the drawing in of the rivers and other physical features.

Since the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube by rising as they do close together, and flowing in different directions, obviously constitute themselves the best backbone for con-

1. Rhine R.
2. Rhone R.
3. Danube R.
4. Lake Constance
5. Saone R.
6. Main R.
7. Loire R.
8. Vosges Mts.
9. Cevennes Mts.
10. Bohemian System
11. Mosella R.
12. Meuse R.
13. Seine R.
14. Marne R.
15. Aisne R.
16. Ouse R.
17. Sambre R.
18. Scheldt R.
19. Somme R.
20. Allier
21. Vienne R.
22. Cher R.
23. Creuse R.
24. Indre R.
25. Charente R.
26. Dordogne R.
27. Garonne R.
28. Tarn R.
29. Lot R.
30. Thuringian Forest
31. Weser R.
32. Elbe R.
33. Moldau R.
34. Eger R.
35. Carpathian Mts.
36. Oder R.
37. Vistula R.
38. Alps Mts.
39. Po R.
40. Adige R.
41. Drave R.
42. Save R.
43. Morava R.
44. Maritza R.
45. Ergene R.
46. Isker R.
47. Vardar R.
48. Inn R.

Fig. I

structing the skeleton of Europe, the desired starting point should be some physical feature near the rising points of these three rivers. Such a convenient starting point is found in *Lake Constance* (4, Fig. 1), through which flows the Rhine early in its course, and northwest of which rises the Danube. Lake Constance can be located with sufficient accuracy by first drawing a lightly dotted line south from the western base of the Peninsula of Denmark to the Gulf of Genoa, and then drawing at right angles to this another from the mouth of the Loire (7, Fig. 1), as indicated in Fig. 1. The intersection of these lines comes at the western end of Lake Constance, which enables one to draw in this lake, observing, in doing so, its general shape, the angle formed by its base with the horizontal dotted line and the length of this base (one-eighth) in terms of the unit into which the sides of the triangle are divided, that is, the unit of measure. We are now in a position to draw in the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube after the fashion described in the previous article, noting the simplest straight line sections into which the rivers can be broken up, their relative lengths, the angles they form with each other, and (a) the relative position of the sources of the Rhine and the Rhone (b) that of the tip of the Saone and the elbow of the Rhine, (c) that of the source of the Danube and the angle of the Rhine.

It is now relatively easy to draw in the other rivers and also the mountains of the continent. I shall not attempt to take up each feature in detail but content myself with pointing out some of the most helpful relationships, and for the rest will refer the reader to the maps given in the text.

The general method to be followed, after having established the positions of the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube, is to use them as guides in drawing in the other features. That is, for example, in drawing the Vosges Mountains (Fig. 1, 8), one notes their relationship in position and length to the middle section of the Rhine; or in drawing the Cevennes and the related ridges (Fig. 1, 9) one notes that the system roughly parallels the western bank of the Saone and Rhone; or in drawing the river Main (Fig.

1, 6) that it is the same length (a half unit) as the middle section of the Rhine and that it flows into the Rhine just at the jog that separates the middle section and the section flowing northwest; or in drawing the Bohemian system, that the southwestern side of the "diamond" starts from the Danube near the jog that forms the division between the second and third sections of the river and runs to the source of the Main where it turns and so continues around until the southeastern side terminates at practically the same point.

These new features in their turn serve as helps in drawing still other features. Thus *relative position,* the relationship between one feature and another, proves to be of the greatest aid in obtaining the clear visual impression that is of such primary importance in gaining the mastery necessary to the ready free-hand drawing of an area.

In regard to the drawing of rivers in general, it should be observed that before any attempt is made to draw a given river two positions should be carefully noted, namely the location of the *source* and of the *mouth.* Thus, for example, in the case of the *Moselle* its mouth is on the section of the Rhine that trends northwest about one-third of the distance from the jog; its source is found in the southernmost end of the Vosges somewhat east of the tip of the Saone. The river can then be analysed into its sections and easily drawn.

This matter of the location of the source of a river is, it may be noted in passing, the "source" of a great deal of trouble because of the almost ineradicable tendency of human beings to locate the mouth only, which, of the two, usually is much the easier to locate, and then to draw against the current of the stream vaguely away from that and taking chances on getting somewhere near the source. The students are not wholly to be blamed for thus stroking the fur of the cat the wrong way, since many of the maps to which they are referred as models have evidently been made by persons afflicted with the same disease. But we must, nevertheless, do violence to our nature, and acquire the habit of drawing rivers right side up from the source to the mouth. The acquisition of this habit has, in addition, this much to

its credit that it may enable some students to learn that the source of a river is not its mouth, a piece of knowledge that it is not always to assume that they possess.

At this point a word should be said about the symbol used to represent mountain ridges and differences in topographical relief in general. The writer has abandoned the use of *hashure* for this purpose largely because in the hand of the student it so often becomes sprawly and untidy. In its stead he has sought to employ a lighter or heavier shading roughly to suggest gradations from coastal plain to plateau to pronounced ridges. If this is far from ideal, at least it has worked well in practice. This is particularly true if the students are required to work with pencil rather than with pen since pencil work is so much more readily modified and is a much more plastic medium than ink.

Turning now to the more detailed development of the various areas of Europe we may begin with that west of the Rhine and Rhone and work eastward.

In developing this western section which comprises the political areas of Rhenish Prussia, Luxemburg, Belgium and France one of the most helpful points to be noticed is the relative position of the sources of the Moselle, the Saone, and the Meuse. Of this group of three, the Saone forms the middle member, while, on either side of it, the other two rise at about equal distances away from it and south of the tip and flow toward each other, until they almost touch, and then turn abruptly away from each other.

In the ridge northwest of the Saone rise not only the Meuse but also the Seine and its principal tributary, the Marne. One should note the symmetrical bends, or "knees" of the Seine, the Marne, and the Aisne. The relationship between the sources of the Sambre, the Scheldt, and the Somme should also be studied.

The relationship of the source of the Loire to the middle point on the last section of the Rhone should be noted as also the diamond-shaped effect made by the Allier and the upper Loire, and the complimentary effects produced by the Vienne, Cher, etc. The Garonne and its tributaries present no special problems.

In the section east of the Rhine, the area of Central

Europe, it is convenient first to note certain points connected with the four principal rivers eastward from the Rhine, namely the Weser, the Elbe, Oder, and Vistula. The Weser rises at the middle point of the northwestern continuation of the Bohemian Forest ridge known as the Thuringian Forest, just about half as long as the ridge of the Bohemian Forest.

In drawing the Elbe, attention should be directed to the position of its source almost at the middle point of the northeastern side of the Bohemian system, the Sudetes, to that of its tributary the Moldau rising just one side of the lowest point of the "diamond," to that of the Eger rising in the western corner of the "diamond" close to the source of the Main, and to the point, just one side of the northern apex of the "diamond," at which the Elbe breaks through the Ore Mountains.

Before attempting to draw the Oder it is wise to sketch in the ridge of the Carpathian Mountains. This ridge broken roughly into four sections runs from one point on the Danube to another: one of these points is almost at the middle of the third section of the Danube while the other comes back to the point of the last sharp southerly bend made by the river. It should be noted also that the northeastern ridge of the Bohemian system extends almost to the Carpathian ridge at the division point between the first and second sections of that ridge.

In the "V" formed by this close approach of these two sections of the Bohemian and Carpathian systems, or rather actually in the gap, known as the *Moravian Gap,* which separates them, rises the Oder. The first section of this river is a short one; the second section a long one, roughly parallels the Sudetes, and then by easily detected sections, whose relations in position and direction to corresponding sections of the Elbe it is helpful to note, makes its way to its mouth.

Of the four large rivers eastward from the Rhine there remains the Vistula. This river's source lies in the Carpathians close to that of the Oder; its short first section brings it over toward the Oder where it turns abruptly in the opposite direction, nearly paralleling the second section

of the Carpathians. This section and the remaining ones approximate in length, as do also the sides of the Bohemian "diamond" and sections one to four of the Danube, the middle section of the Rhine or in other words a half unit.

Of Central Europe there remains to be dealt with the areas south of the Danube. The chief rivers here are the Drave, the Save, the Inn, the Adige, and the Po. A preliminary to drawing the rivers is the analysis and drawing of the Alpine ridges.

The chief Alpine ridge finds its beginning about midway on the stretch of coast running southwest from Genoa; from there it runs in a broken curving line to the tip of the Istrian Peninsula. In drawing this curve it is often convenient to start at the point just south of the tip of the Rhone and draw westward. This westward section resembles roughly a sidewise "M" with one broken side. A line extending from the lower corner would cut the Rhone about the point indicated (Fig. 1). In this point, let us notice in passing, rises the tributary of the Po, the Dora Riparia, which joins the Po a short distance farther east and with it constitutes for most practical purposes a straight line to the coast about three-fourths of a unit in length. The real source of the Po is somewhat lower, but, in drawing it, it is more convenient first to sketch a straight line and then to draw the Po proper if it is necessary to use it. The same may be said of the Moldau and the source of the Elbe; practically one draws the Moldau first, then, if necessary, the proper source of the Elbe.

Before drawing the eastern half or section of the Alps, it is convenient to draw in both the Inn and the Adige. The source of the former lies a short distance below the first bend of the Rhine; it breaks into three sections and empties into the second section of the Danube at the middle point (Fig. 1). The Adige or rather its tributary, the Eisach (the proper source of the Adige lies to the west), rises on a line with the first break in the Inn and directly under the peak of the Danube. The Adige can be analysed into three sections (Fig. 1) and flows into the Adriatic just above the Po.

The completion of the ridge of the Alps now is a very

simple matter for one has only to bring them up between the Inn and the Adige, around the top of the latter, then head straight for the tip of the Istrian Peninsula.

The ridge known as the Eastern Alps runs in a straight line from above the tip of the Adige over to the Danube at the break between the second and third sections and across from the end of the Bohemian Forest. The source of the river Drave is in the Alps just below and west of the tip of the Adige (Eisach). The source of the Save is farther east in the Alps just over the Gulf of Triest.

There remain three rivers, all in the Balkan area, which it is advisable to sketch. Two of them have for more than a thousand years guided the feet of the merchant, soldier, and traveler between Central Europe and Asia, namely, the Morava and Maritza. The Morava rises at a point about midway between the Danube and the coast and after a short section in a northeasterly direction turns sharply northward and flows into the Danube just east of the junction of the Save and the Danube. Into this longer section at a point about three-quarters of the way from the Danube flows a short tributary along side of which ran the great road connecting East and West. Not far eastward from the source of the tributary rises the Maritza which runs directly towards Constantinople but which, when about half way there, turns at an acute angle and runs off into the Aegean; at a short distance below this bend there enters a tributary which serves to lead the road on almost to Constantinople itself. Just between the source of the Maritza and Morava rises a third river, the Isker, which breaks its way through the Balkan ridge and marks out a minor line of communication between the Danube and the Aegean near Salonika.

The main features of Europe east of the Vistula and the Carpathians remain to be sketched in. In doing this it is convenient to begin with the Pruth, the Dniester, and the main tributary of the Vistula, namely the Bug, noting especially the mutual relationships of the sources (Fig. 2). After drawing the Niemen and the Duena we may take up the Dnieper and the Volga, first noting the position and form of the crests of the Valdai Hills. In drawing the course of the Dnieper there should be noted the rough par-

Figure 2.
1. Pruth R.
2. Dniester R.
3. Bug R.
4. Nieman R.
5. Duena R.
6. Valdai Hills
7. Dnieper R.
8. Pripet R.
9. Volga R.
10. Oka R.
11. Don R.

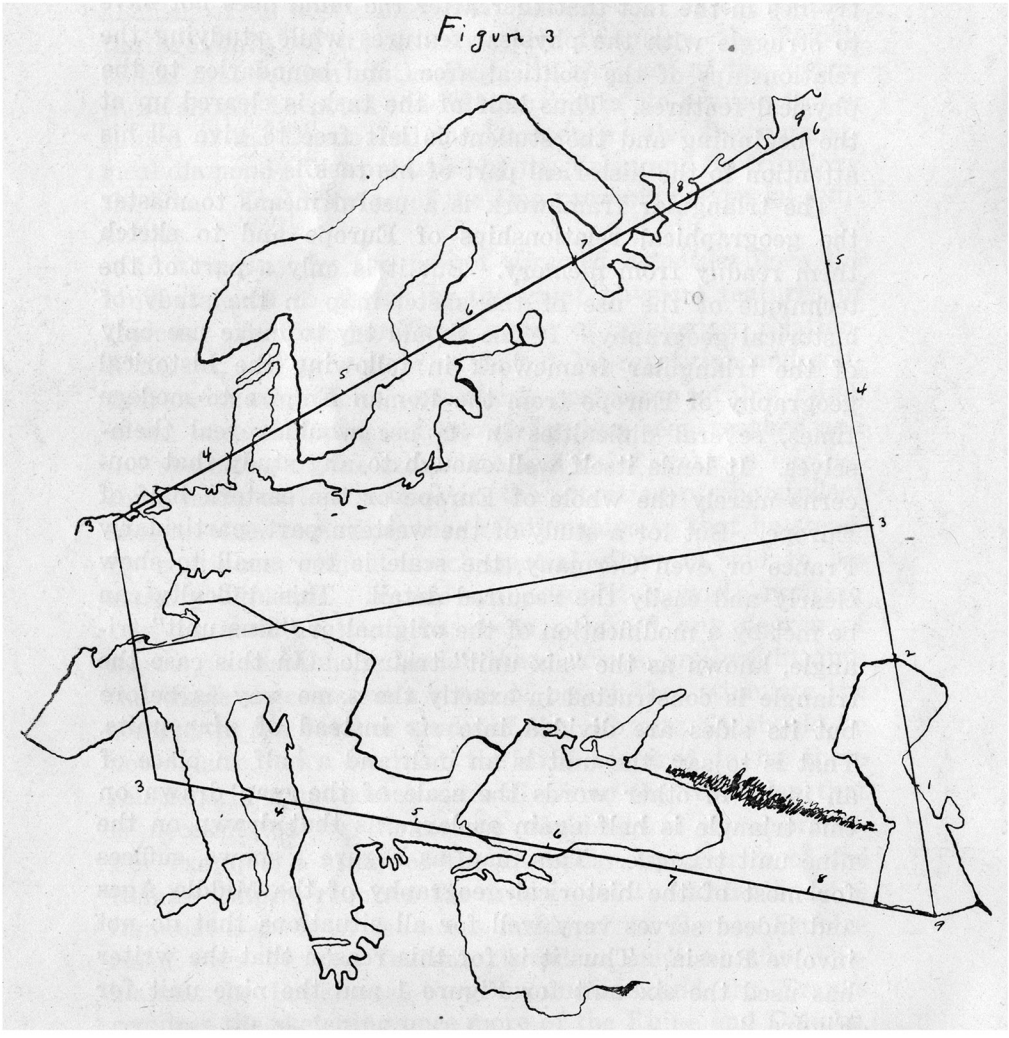
allelism of its first section with that of the Duena, as also the proximity of its main western tributary, the Pripet, to the first section of the Bug. In the case of the Volga, there should be noted the relationship of its sources to the source of the Duena and the Dnieper, as also the symmetrical diamond effect produced by the Volga and its tributary the Oka. The drawing of the Don presents no special difficulties.

In this way by the use of *directed attention* does the student learn to sketch in the chief physical features of Europe. He has perceived a set of analogies, relationtionships, and proportions that can by repetition and self-drill be made into a permanent possession of his mind. When once this stage of knowledge has been reached and the sketching of the coast line and chief features has become more or less automatic, the attention of the student becomes free to notice other relationships so that he steadily continues without much special effort to add to his mastery of detail. In this connection it is worth noticing that as soon as there has been obtained any degree of mastery over this material there comes an insight into the whole process and a sense of power that stimulate the student in his further study of the subject. It should be noted, also, that much of the drill required to fix these relations in mind comes naturally from the repetition that is necessitated by the course of historical development. For example, a study of the European boundaries of the Roman Empire requires the drawing of the Rhine and the Danube; a study of the areas inside of the Roman Empire ruled over by the Teutonic invaders such as the Allemanni, the Bavarians, the Burgundians and the Franks requires the sketching once more of the Rhine and Danube, in addition to that of the Inn, the Rhone, the Vosges, the Seine and a number of other features. The re-drawing of many other features is in turn required by the study of the territorial modifications that have taken place by the time of the breaking up of Charlemagne's Empire and so on. Indeed, the beauty of once really learning the mutual relationships of the physical features of any coun-

try lies in the fact that thereafter the mind does not have to struggle with the physical features while studying the relationships of the political areas and boundaries to the physical features. Thus half of the task is cleared up at the beginning and the student is left free to give all his attention to the historical part of his task.

The triangular framework is a useful means to master the geographical relationships of Europe and to sketch them readily from memory. But it is only a part of the technique of the use of the sketch-map in the study of historical geography. If one should try to make use only of the triangular framework in following the historical geography of Europe from the Roman Empire to modern times, several difficulties in its use would reveal themselves. It lends itself well enough to any study that concerns merely the whole of Europe or the eastern half of Europe. But for a study of the western part, particularly France or even Germany, the scale is too small to show clearly and easily the required detail. This difficulty can be met by a modification of the original or "nine unit" triangle, known as the "six unit" triangle. In this case the triangle is constructed in exactly the same way as before but its sides are divided into *six* instead of *nine* units. That is to say, the unit is an inch and a half in place of an inch: in other words the scale of the map drawn on this triangle is half again as large as that drawn on the nine unit triangle. This map, as Figure 1 shows, suffices for most of the historical geography of the Middle Ages and indeed serves very well for all situations that do not involve Russia. Thus it is for this reason that the writer has used the six unit for Figure 1 and the nine unit for Figure 2.

Moreover, when Russia is to be dealt with and there is no need for drawing Spain and France, it is often convenient to cut off the apex of the triangle and convert it into a *trapezoid.* This figure can be constructed by drawa base any desired length, dividing it into six units, and erecting at its middle point a perpendicular five and five-



eighths units in length, at the other end of which should be drawn at right angles a line two units in length, one unit on each side; the ends of this line should be connected with the ends of the first line drawn. The sides should then be divided and numbered as shown in Figure 3. The map drawn on this framework is susceptible of development to a considerable degree of detail without sacrificing the

necessary distinctness. The new relationships especially in connection with the perpendicular bisecting the ends should be noted.

But the end and aim of this technique is not the drawing of maps in frameworks: rather, the aim is to obtain such a knowledge of relationships of physical features that one can reproduce at will any given area. In other words a frame-work is to be used as long as it is a help, and is

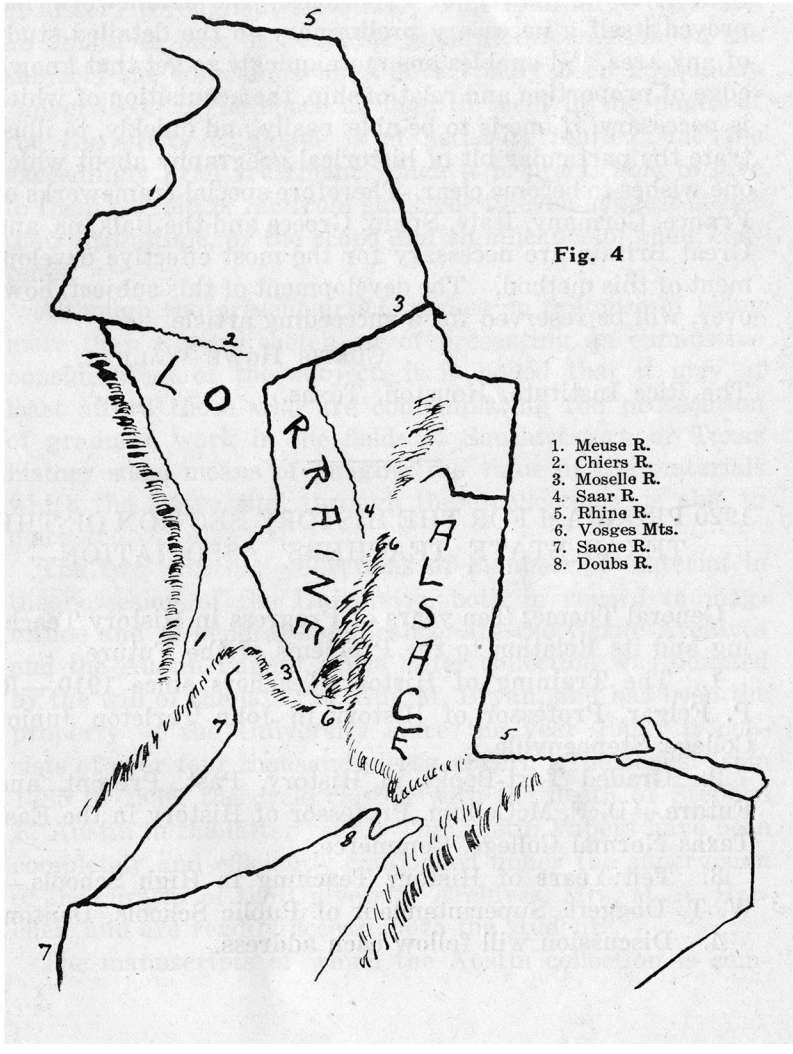


Fig. 4

1. Meuse R.
2. Chiers R.
3. Moselle R.
4. Saar R.
5. Rhine R.
6. Vosges Mts.
7. Saone R.
8. Doubs R.

to be thrown aside the moment it becomes a bother. It will be found that students very soon come to control the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube and their chief tributaries, and that from that point on, their tendency is, at least for areas not involving coast-lines such as Alsace, Bavaria, the Duchy of Milan, to draw a rough sketch-map without framework (Fig. 4). Such tendencies should be nourished and encouraged as much as possible. Nevertheless, as a matter of experience, the framework has proved itself a necessary preliminary to the detailed study of any area. It enables one more quickly to get that knowledge of proportion and relationship, the acquisition of which is necessary, if one is to be able, easily and quickly, to illustrate the particular bit of historical geography about which one wishes to become clear. Therefore special frameworks of France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Greece and the Balkans, and Great Britain are necessary for the most effective development of this method. The development of this subject, however, will be reserved for a succeeding article.

CURTIS HOWE WALKER.

The Rice Institute, Houston, Texas.

1920 PROGRAM FOR THE HISTORY SECTION OF THE TEXAS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

General Theme: Ten years of Progress in History Teaching and its Relation to the Problems of the Future.

1. The Training of History Teachers since 1910.—R. P. Felgar, Professor of History in John Tarleton Junior College, Stephenville.
2. Graded Text-Books in History, Past, Present, and Future.—D. F. McCollum, Professor of History in the East Texas Normal College, Commerce.
3. Ten Years of History Teaching in High Schools.—W. T. Doggett, Superintendent of Public Schools, Denton.
4. Discussion will follow each address.

THE HISTORICAL MANUSCRIPT COLLECTIONS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

The extent of the facilities for historical study and research which are afforded by the collections of historical manuscript material in the possession of the University of Texas is not generally appreciated by students and teachers of history throughout the state. This is in large part due, no doubt, to lack of available general information on the subject; the collections have never really been adequately "advertised." The space devoted to them in the pages of the University catalogue is of necessity limited, and the exceedingly brief treatment which it is practicable to give to them therein is far from sufficient to even suggest either their magnitude, or the scope and significance of their contents.

Although the present article makes no pretense of being more than a mere sketch, or of presenting an exhaustive consideration of the subject, it is hoped that it may at least afford those who are contemplating the prosecution of graduate work in the fields of Southwestern or Texas history some means of guaging the value of the materials which the University, through these collections, is able to place at their disposal.

The two principal collections of manuscript material in the possesion of the University, both in regard to magnitude and to general significance, are the Béxar Archives and the Austin Papers. The latter collection was donated by the will of the late Col. Guy M. Bryan, and has been the property of the University since the year 1902; it consists of over four thousand pieces, covering the period from 1785 to 1836, the cycle closing with the death of Stephen F. Austin in the latter year. The Austin Papers have been completely and efficiently catalogued under the supervision of the curator of the University Archives, Mrs. M. A. Hatcher, and are readily accessible to the student.

The manuscripts of which the Austin collection is com-

posed constitute a particularly rich mine of material for the study of the Western movement of population during the late eighteenth and the early nineteenth centuries; the Austins travelled upon the crest of the wave of Western expansion, and were a particularly fine type of the pioneer family. The movement may be followed through them, from the Atlantic seaboard to Western Virginia, and from thence to Missouri, where they are represented during the second decade of the nineteenth century by Moses Austin, and by his son, Stephen F. Austin, himself. The two were closely identified with the life and problems of the frontier as it then existed, and were prominent and influential citizens of the new-born commonwealth of Missouri. Stephen was a member of the Missouri state legislature from 1816 to 1820; and the documents of this period furnish excellent material for the study of the economic and policital problems which troubled the life of the new frontier. The further expansion of population from the trans-Mississippi to the Rio Grande may be studied through the papers of this collection which fall between the years 1819 and 1836, during which period Stephen F. Austin established and expanded his colony of San Felipe de Austin on the banks of the Brazos, in what was then Mexican territory.

The correspondence of Stephen F. Austin during the period last referred to forms by far the greater part of the collection, and covers practically all of the multiple phases of the history of the Anglo-American "invasion" of Texas, and the resulting series of events which led up to the Texas revolution and the establishment of an independent government for Texas in 1836. Austin was a man of extreme versatility and great strength of character, combined with diplomatic talents and executive ability of no mean order; and in his multiple rôle of *empresario*, military chief, civil authority, and deputy to the legislature of the State of Coahuila and Texas for his colony, and general representative and functionnaire of his colonists and the other Anglo-American elements of Texas in all matters which came up between them and the state or central governments, he met and was compelled to solve the numerous problems

which arose in the path of the nascent commonwealth; and these problems may be studied at first-hand today through the medium of the exhaustive discussions and analyses to which he subjected them in the course of solution, contained in private and official letters, memorials addressed to the government, and public addresses delivered by him on numberless occasions, which form a part of the contents of this collection.

A considerable proportion of the papers belonging to this period consists of official communications which passed between Austin and the Mexican officials at Béxar, the members of the state legislature in Coahuila, or officials of the central government at Mexico City, on matters of executive and administrative colonial routine; these documents furnish an admirable medium for the study of the principles of Mexican colonial administration, and of the workings of the *empresario* system. Another considerable division of Austin's correspondence consists of letters to and from prospective colonists, which furnish additional material for the study of the *empresario* system, besides giving a clear insight into the nature of the social and economic conditions of the new colony, and the conditions in the United States which contributed to the rapid influx of Anglo-American settlers into Texas.

There are, besides the above, a number of memorials addressed by Austin to the state legislature of Coahuila and Texas, and to the national congress at Mexico City, petitioning for the revocation or modification of existing laws which affected the prosperity of the colony, or proposing legislation which would prove to its benefit, and discussing and setting forth at length the conditions in the colony which made the proposed measure necessary. These memorials are excellent historical material.

In addition to the above correspondence, Austin carried on an extensive intercourse with personal friends, both in Mexico and the United States; and these letters are particularly valuable to the historian, because of the intimate and confidential nature of the many discussions of public questions which they contain. Through the medium

of these letters, the researcher is able to obtain the writer's personal reaction to the matter under discussion, unembarrassed by the fear of public criticism. His correspondence with General Mier y Teràn with whom he maintained a close friendship, and with his brothers and cousins in the United States, is particularly valuable in this respect.

The Austin collection is now being edited by Dr. E. C. Barker, Chairman of the School of History at the University of Texas, and will soon be available to scholars in book form. The finished work will be published by the Historical Manuscript Commission of the American Historical Association, which, through the Government Printing Office at Washington, issues a volume of edited source material every one or two years. The Austin collection, when published, will consist of two volumes. The first of these will cover the period 1785 to 1827, inclusive, and will consist of biographical material on the Austin family, especially on Moses Austin, and on the public career of Stephen F. Austin in Missouri, as well as other general material relative to the preliminaries which led up to the establishment of the colony of San Felipe de Austin. The second volume will embrace the period from 1828 to 1836, and will contain material upon the foundation, administration, and expansion of the colony, upon the Texas revolution, and the establishment of the new government. Volume I is now in the hands of the printer, and will soon be ready for circulation; Volume II will be ready for printing by next May, and will probably be available to the public by December, 1922.

Dr. Barker has for the past fifteen years, been engaged in the collection of Austin letters and other Austin material, and the Austin Papers, when published, will consist not only of the original collection donated by Col. Bryan, but will also contain the results of Dr. Barker's researches throughout this period. The Béxar Archives have also been exhaustively examined for matter relative to Austin, and all pertinent letters and documents obtained from this source are being included in the pages of the work, as well as other Austin material which has been

gleaned from the State Capitol collections, the Yale University Library, and various private collections.[1]

The appearance of the first volume of this work in 1921 will constitute a most fitting centennial memorial for Austin, as it was in 1821 that his first colonial land-grant was confirmed by the Mexican government.

The Béxar Archives cover the period from 1730 to 1836, and afford an invaluable fund of information in the fields of early Spanish colonial administration, the policies of the Spanish crown and the succeeding Mexican government in regard to Texas, and the Mexican and Texas revolutions. The Béxar Archives from 1819 to 1836 supplement and off-set the Austin Papers, the two collections together constituting a most comprehensive and well-nigh inexhaustible mass of source material on the problems and movements of the period. The Béxar Archives became the property of the University in 1899, at which time they were turned over to the institution by the Bexar County Commissioners. The documents of which the collection is composed have been catalogued from 1730 to 1756, and from 1829 to 1836; and those which fall between the years 1756 and 1820 have been arranged in such a manner as to be readily accessible, and will soon also be catalogued.[2]

Space limitations render it impossible to accord to the

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[1]It is earnestly requested that all those who have knowledge of any Austin material, either printed or in manuscript form, communicate the information to Dr. Barker, in order that the printed collection may be as complete as it is possible to make it.

[2]The Nacogdoches Archives, which are deposited in the State Library at the Capitol in Austin, and are under the direct custody of the State, are of the same period as the Béxar Archives, of which they are in reality a part, as Nacogdoches belonged to the jurisdiction of Bèxar throughout the Mexican règime in Texas. The collection consists of several thousand pieces, and is of particular interest to the student of the frontier conditions of the time; its contents have been arranged chronologically, and are readily accessible. Another notable collection which is in the possession of the State Library is that of the letters and collected manuscripts of Mirabeau B. Lamar. The Lamar Papers have been recently edited by Mr. Charles M. Gulick, and are now in the hands of the printer. They have also been efficiently catalogued.

minor collections of manuscript material in the possession of the University the detailed consideration which their historical importance deserves; but it is necessary to notice at least a few of the more noteworthy of these. Among the most important, from the standpoint both of historical significance and of general interest, is the collection of letters of General Sam Houston, the earliest of which bears the date of 1819. The significance of General Houston's correspondence does not need to be commented upon. The Maverick Papers constitute another important group of source material, covering the Anglo-American "invasion," the Revolution, the period of the Republic, and the ante-bellum period. The Ratchford-Rose Papers are also a valuable source of information regarding the history of Texas as a state of the ante-bellum South. The period of the Texas Republic is further covered by the McKinney Papers,[3] while the Fisher Papers serve to supplement the larger collections which have to do with the pre-Revolutionary period.[4]

The later phases of Texas history may be studied at first hand through such collections as the Roberts Papers[5] and the Neblett Papers. The former consists of the correspondence of the late Governor O. M. Roberts during his public career in Texas, and the latter covers generally the period between 1847 and 1896. A notable addition soon to be made to the University collections of historical source-material consists of the papers of A. J. Rose, which will be particularly valuable to the student for the rise of the Granger movement and for the development of A. and M. College.

As has been said above, the present sketch does not hope to do more than list the more salient points of in-

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[3]Recently donated by Mrs. M. A. Hatcher, University Archivist.

[4]There are also a number of Fisher letters in the Archives Department of the State Library. They have been arranged in chronological order, and are readily accessible.

[5]Donated to the University by the will of Governor O. M. Roberts in 1898.

terest in connection with its subject; a thousand minor considerations must be left untouched. In fact, no merely descriptive article could hope to do full justice to the value of the historical materials which the University of Texas holds at the disposal of the student and historian; to be fully appreciated, they must be examined at leisure and used.

W. A. WHATLEY.

University of Texas.

THE SKETCH-MAP AS AN AID IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY[1]‡

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the place of the sketch-map in the teaching of historical geography. The discussion will deal with the following matters: (1) the problem which the teaching of historical geography presents in general; (2) the relative success or lack of success with which this problem is being solved; (3) the relative value of the sketch-map method as compared with other methods in use; (4) difficulties which stand in the way of the wider use of the sketch-map method; (5) means of overcoming these difficulties; (6) a sketch-map of Europe by way of illustration.

In trying to make historical geography mean something to students, doubtless the heart of the problem is to get them to think in terms of physical features. There is no one, I think, who would seriously question this statement. Historical geography is concerned with changing areas of states, and is most in evidence during an early period of political consolidation and a later period of territorial expansion. The particular task of historical geography is to know the names of the areas involved in both these processes and to know what geographical area is designated by a given historical name. In the case of our own country, for example, the names of Virginia and Massachusetts are connected intimately with the period of political consolidation of our country; those of the Louisiana Purchase and California, with the period of our westward expansion. It is the task of historical geography to make clear the geographical scope of such names.

But how is one to make clear either to one's self or to others the geographical scope of names of this sort with-

[1] A paper read October 30, 1915, before the High School History Teachers' Association of Chicago; slightly revised, and printed in The School Review, September, 1916.

out knowing some of the physical characteristics involved, without having something definite with which to associate the names? Obviously, must one not have something to which to tie? A very simple means of testing this matter is at hand, and is offered by the character of our own mental pictures of location. What, for example, is the mental picture called up by the name "New York City," or by that of "Chicago"? In the case of New York, some consciousness that it is on the coast at the mouth of the Hudson immediately comes to us, and, in the case of Chicago, we see Lake Michigan with the city planted at its edge near the southwest corner. Or, suppose the states in which the cities are placed be taken, does not the mental picture involve the Hudson again and the Great Lakes in the one case, and, in the other, Lake Michigan and the Mississippi? Conversely, is it not the lack of knowledge of the physical characteristics which makes the mental pictures of other places and political divisions vague? What, for example, is the character of the mental picture when we speak of Burgundy, Bedfordshire, or Wurttemberg? Are they tied definitely to anything? Do they not float loosely around "somewhere in France" and the other countries? Can we not say that the vividness and the accuracy of our mental pictures vary according to our knowledge of the physical features of the area? It is perfectly clear, it seems to me, that our minds instinctively reach out for definite and specific features with which to associate the location of areas, boundaries, and places.

If, then, this is the stuff out of which mental pictures of location are made, must not our aim in teaching historical geography be (1) to train the pupil to study the physical features of the areas with which the historical narrative deals, and (2) to train him to associate the historical areas about which he is studying with these physical features? In other words, must not our aim be to train him, when dealing with political divisions and places, *to think in terms of physical features?* But this is not easy matter, and *how* to get the pupil to do this is a problem—the very problem that the teaching of historical geography presents to us.

Now, how is this problem being attacked? Upon what methods do teachers commonly rely? With what success are these efforts attended? With these questions of method and efficiency our discussion must next concern itself.

There are three methods now commonly in use in the teaching of historical geography which claim our attenion. In one of these the teachers supply themselves with wall-maps and historical charts, good, bad, and indifferent; they rely on these and on the maps in the textbooks to help convey to the pupil some notion of the physical areas that correspond to such as Nevada, Ontario, Wessex, Lombardy, and other similar names of historical division. In this case the pupil is supposed to acquire the information by turning from the text, after he has read there about some territorial change to the map in the book—in case there is a map of this territory—and get a notion of the area signified by the name or names about which he has been reading. The knowledge which may or may not have been gained in this way is then further reinforced, when the matter is being touched on in class, by the act of the teacher in directing the attention of the pupil to the wall-map or chart. This is done either by a glance of the eye or by pointing with the finger or pointer. Some enthusiasts, indeed, even venture so far as to trace out the boundary line of the area in question. This method does not involve any test of the pupil's knowledge. It takes for granted that he does examine the map after reading the text; it is thus characterized, we may say, by a large measure of pious hope.

Other teachers, making less heavy drafts upon the treasury of pious hope, use all the measures to which reference has just been made and, in addition, make some effort to see that the pupil really does look at the map for himself. The means they resort to is that of the *outline-map*. In this outline-map method, the second of the methods to be described, the pupil is required to fill in on an outline-map the area in question. He is asked to figure out from maps at his disposal, either those in his text-book or those in some historical atlas, just where East Anglia,

Champagne, or Switzerland is supposed to be, and then to trace or fill in a corresponding area on his map. Furthermore, I believe, he is generally supposed to label some of the rivers and mountains that may be found on his outline-map with what seem to be appropriate names. These maps are then handed in, and the teacher is thus assured that at least the pupil has spent some effort on the matter. With many teachers the effort stops here, and the pupil is not required to be able at a written test or examination to reproduce this material from memory. By some teachers, however, this further test is applied.

A third method goes yet farther in the effort to make sure that the pupil really does acquire some of the knowledge that he is supposed to have gained. In this method, the sketch-map method, the pupil is himself required to make his own map, drawing in the coast line, rivers, and mountains; on this he must put in the boundary lines or fill in with color the area in question. Here, too, the users of this method may be divided into two classes, according as they do or do not require the pupil to be ready to reproduce his work from memory.

Under such headings, namely, the method of "pious hope," of the outline-map, and of the sketch-map, may be roughly gathered the common methods now in use for the teaching of historical geography.

The question that next presents itself relates to their efficiency. How well do they accomplish their aim? To what extent do they lead the pupils to think in terms of physical features?

When we ask ourselves how far the methods sketched above train the pupils to associate the given areas with physical features, how far these methods lead to the acquisition of any permanent knowledge, we shall have to admit, I think, that, on the whole, the results are unsatisfactory. The pupil, particularly in the case of European history, has his real knowledge increased very little. When Burgundy and Brandenburg can be transposed at the pupil's pleasure, when it is insisted that the straits of Gibraltar separate Dover and Calais, when Canterbury is placed where

Cairo should be, and Jerusalem is located on the Italian peninsula, it would seem evident that there is still much to be desired in the efficiency of our methods of teaching historical geography. No doubt there are teachers here and there, both in the high schools and in private schools, who are getting good results, but the evidence leads me to think that they form an almost invisible minority. Nor would their number be much increased if one included in the survey the great throng of college and university instructors who deal with undergraduates. In this matter the charge of unsatisfactory results can be brought against the history teacher both in the University and in the high school. Why should this be so? Why should the results of efforts in this subject be so uniformly far from satisfactory? It will not be without benefit to consider this matter for a moment.

The reason for the unsatisfactory character of the results obtained in the teaching of historical geography seems to me to be attributed chiefly to the deficiencies of the maps ordinarily in use, on the one hand, and, on the other, to defective methods and to inefficient use of methods good enough in themselves.

The most striking deficiency in the maps ordinarily supplied to students is their small *size*. Both in text-book and in historical atlas the scale of the average map is so small that it is difficult, even with the best effort, to get clear ideas of the matter being studied. A less obvious but, if anything, more important deficiency is to be noted in the principle upon which historical maps are, for the most part, constructed. If the association between boundary line and physical feature is to be the guiding principle in the teaching of historical geography, it would seem necessarily to follow that historical maps and atlases should be so constructed as to bring out as clearly as possible the relationship existing between boundary and physical feature. But to this notion the majority of historical maps at present in use do great violence. The constructors of these maps seem to have felt that boundary line rather than physical feature is the important matter; in consequence

they consistently emphasize boundary lines at the cost of physical features. The heavy dotted line, black or colored, usurps the place of the Alps or the Vosges, and the Seine or the Rhine is reduced to utter insignificance or eliminated completely. Above all are they given to an overuse of color. As the combined result of these practices the features which give meaning to an area are entirely or in large part either obliterated, slighted, or utterly neglected. In such maps, as far as the pupil can see, there is no particular reason why the blue which denotes Normandy should stop and the pink which denotes Maine should begin or why the brown for Bavaria should give place to the red that denotes Austria. As a result, when he has made a picture puzzle of France, or Germany, or England, or it may be Africa as now divided, for most of his boundary lines he has nothing but another boundary line to guide him. Thus, while he may have increased his knowledge of relations somewhat, his effort in great part has been wasted, for he has gained no lasting knowledge of physical features, without which knowledge he is in no position to grasp the mutual relations of the political divisions and boundary lines he is striving to learn. While these deficiences in the maps from which pupils must get the desired information undoubtedly constitute a hindrance to the history teacher in his effort to teach the geographical aspects of his subject, the entire blame for poor results cannot be placed on the character of the maps at his disposal. In some cases the character of the method is at fault.

In the first method described, for example, not only is there no satisfactory test of the student's knowledge—a grave defect in any method—but it is deficient in another regard. This is due to the assumption, made by the teacher when pointing to a wall-map, that the pupils can see the map as well as himself. That this is an assumption utterly unjustified by the facts can be easily ascertained by anyone who chooses to place himself in any of the seats back of the first two or three rows where the pupils sit. In such a position one very soon discovers that the average

wall-map or even chart is of very slight value as far as the pupil is concerned. The reason is that for the majority of pupils in a room the instructive features on a wall-map become blurred. The teacher, close to the map, knowing exactly the thing upon which he wishes attention to be focused, and seeing clearly enough himself the various details, is prone to forget that the pupil is not in the same situation as himself. Furthermore, wall-maps suffer from the same defect as the maps in text-books and atlases, though not to the same degree, in that they tend to an overuse of color to show the extent of political areas and emphasize lines to the slighting of physical features. Undoubtedly wall-maps have their uses, but, unaided, they cannot be relied on to give the pupil the knowledge he ought to have. For efficient work the pupil must himself have in his hand a good map which he can study closely and at leisure.

With the outline-map method the case is different. This, if rightly employed, should produce some solid results. It remedies some of the worst defects that inhere in the first method. It takes pains to make sure that the pupil gets some of the knowledge that he is supposed to get, and makes him construct a great many of the details for himself. It is, however, robbed of its full efficiency in many cases by failure to require the pupil to label or fill in the significant physical features, and by failure to insist that the pupil shall be able to reproduce his work from memory. Naturally, too, the pupil follows the poor model of the atlas and text-book, and splashes on color liberally, feeling, doubtless, that there is some vital connection between pink and Provence.

In the case, likewise, of the sketch-map method, the failure to secure good results is due, not to any defect in the method itself, but rather to ineffective applications of the method. That the method has been for the most part ineffectively applied is due, I think, to the lack of any well-defined system for its use.

These, then, are the methods commonly in use in the teaching of historical geography. We have seen that they

are producing far from satisfactory results, and we have discussed some of the reasons for this state of things. Now, it seems to be a great pity that, of the various methods at present in use, the one which in its nature is best calculated to produce the most satisfactory results should be the least widely in use. I therefore wish to spend the rest of the time allotted me in discussing the value of the sketch-map method, examining the difficulties in the way of its wider use, and suggesting ways of meeting these difficulties, to the end that the sketch-map method may be more widely used in our effort to teach historical geography.

In the first place, then, is the sketch-map method really superior to that of the outline-map method? Does the sketch-map method more than the outline-map method lead the pupil to think in terms of physical features—to study, that is, the relations of physical features to each other and of political boundaries to them? The particular value of the sketch-map method lies for one thing, it seems to me, in the *closer observation* which the student is compelled to give to the matter, and, for another, in the *aid it gives in visualizing* the relations of physical features to each other and of the boundaries' relation to them. For example, suppose the district in question to be *Bohemia.*

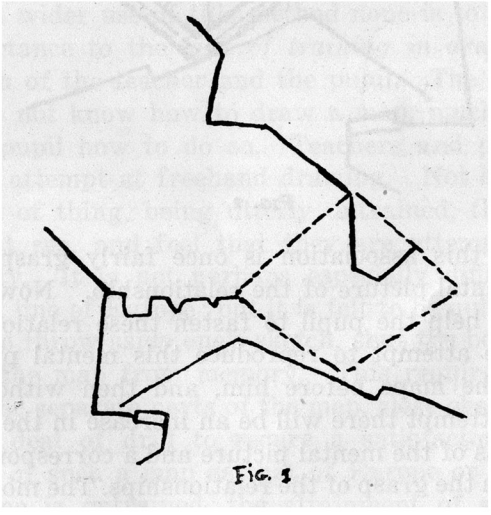

Fig. 1

What is the process through which the pupil goes? He takes an historical atlas and turns to the map which shows the location of Bohemia. He finds this location indicated by dotted lines forming a diamand-shaped figure (Fig. 1). If his map shows the physical features plainly, or if he provides himself with one that does, he will see that his diamond-shaped figure is nothing in the world but the diamond-shaped plateau drained by the headwaters of the Elbe River system and bound in by four well-marked mountain ranges. In fact, if his maps are good, he soon sees that the boundary line follows very closely the ridges of these ranges, and that, for most practical purposes, it is to be associated with these mountains (Fig. 2). More-

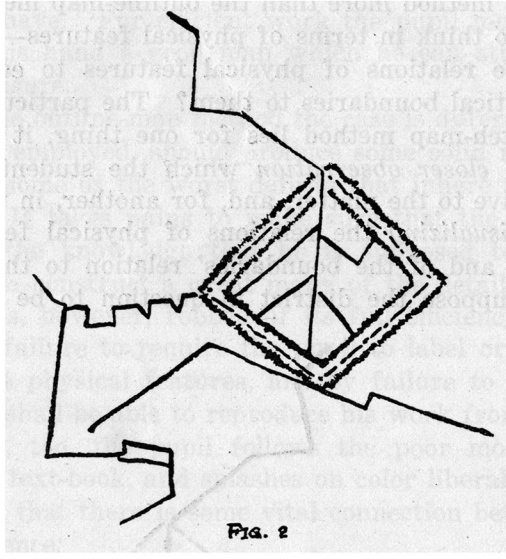

FIG. 2

over, when this association is once fairly grasped, there results a mental picture of the relationship. Now, nothing will so well help the pupil to fasten these relationships in mind as the attempt to reproduce this mental picture, at first with the maps before him, and then without them. With each attempt there will be an increase in the accuracy and vividness of the mental picture and a corresponding improvement in the grasp of the relationships. The most conclu-

sive proof that a pupil has a grasp of these facts and knows what he is talking about is to be found, it must be admitted, in his ability to make from memory a sketch-map of the area in question. Such an ability represents a knowledge of a higher order and more permanent character than the ability to fill in from memory the details of name and boundary line on a map already made for him. The difference in grasp is something like that between the ability required to read a language and that required to speak it. From this point of view, as between the relative worth of the outline-map and the sketch-map, there can be no question: the superiority of the sketch-map method is incontestable. It is the one device yet in use which really forces the pupil to study the matter and get a working grasp of it. It is the instinctive recognition of this fact that has always led a certain number of teachers to experiment with this method. If they have not succeeded better or been able to obtain wider recognition for the method, this fact must be set down not to the fault of the method itself, but to the difficulties in the way of its successful application. What are these difficulties, and can they be overcome with a not too great expenditure of time and effort?

Of the various hindrances that hitherto have stood in the way of a wider use of this method none is to be compared in importance to the *lack of training in drawing* on the part both of the teacher and the pupil. The teacher himself does not know how to draw a map, much less can he tell the pupil how to do so. Teachers and pupils shrink from an attempt at freehand drawing. Not being used to this sort of thing, being utterly untrained, they are completely at sea, and feel that they are attempting an impossibility. It is not perhaps especially difficult to copy the coast line of Europe; but it is felt to be quite a different matter to throw aside one's sketch, shut the book, and then remake the map from memory. This requires keen analysis of the separate parts of the map, close observation, and a great deal of drill to secure a satisfactory degree of mastery of such a map as that of Europe or similar ones. When one is untrained, the attainment of such mastery

seems almost hopeless and certainly not worth the effort. In this lack of training is to be found beyond doubt, I think, the chief hindrance to the wider use of the sketch-map. By what means is this difficulty to be overcome?

Doubtless the obvious means of overcoming the lack of training in drawing sketch-maps is to supply the lack. But what is the nature of the training that will enable one to draw the necessary maps with a fair degree of ease and accuracy? How great is the effort necessary to require this training, and is the effort worth while? Our attention, consequently, must next be directed to a consideration of the way in which a sketch-map should be constructed, to a discussion of the principles by which one should be guided—in short, to the *art of the sketch-map.*

If one, without any previous training, should essay to draw from memory an outline of the continent of Europe, the result would probably look something like the accompanying sketch (Fig. 3). Now, while all such first at-

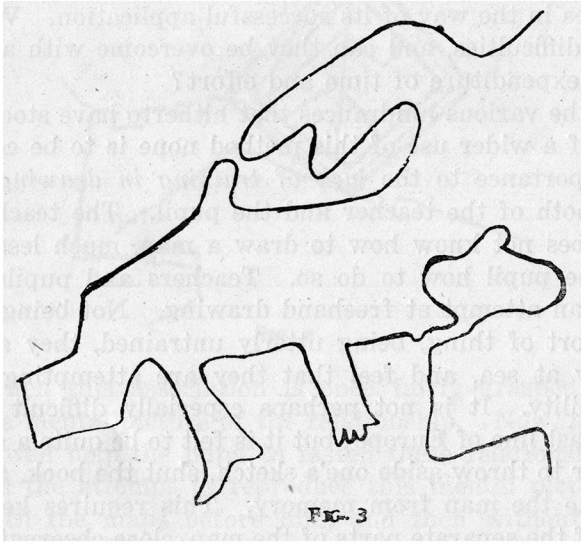

FIG. 3

tempts are laughable because, though suggesting the original, they are yet so grotesquely different, nevertheless they represent one's actual working knowledge of the subject

and can be made to afford many useful hints and suggestions as to how one's work may be bettered. In particular, an examination of the sketch (Fig. 3) will show that unconsciously the maker has been guided by certain *principles* that are sound and that will enable him, when once they are consciously grasped, greatly to improve his work.

What, then, are the principles by which an untrained person is, when making a sketch, unconsciously guided? They are three, namely, *analogy, proportion, and relationship.* Let us first consider the matter of analogy. By this is meant the tendency to see resemblances between the things one is trying to draw and the objects with which one is familiar. One seems to feel that, if, somehow, one can catch a resemblance in this way, the task is rendered easier. This feeling is undoubtedly correct; for the mental pictures of such familiar objects, for example, as a dog, a hammer, or a square, are so clear and well defined that the moment the shape of the new object can be associated with one of these familiar objects, its outlines are no longer strange and difficult to grasp, but, on the contrary, familiar and easy to hold in mind. The vivid picture of the familiar object acts as a guide in our efforts to draw the thing before us. Ample illustration of these points can be drawn from the sketch given herewith (Fig. 3). In this case the well-marked features, the peninsulas in particular, seem to have suggested analogies, and thus stamped themselves on the mind. Scandinavia, for example, has caught the fancy with its jaws and necklike projection from the main body of the continent. Peglike Denmark, and Spain, with its resemblance to a square, give our minds a hold on them, while Italy's resemblance to a boot makes that peninsula the easiest of all to remember and draw. Doubtless, also, Europe's rough resemblance to a triangle has not been without its effect. It is in ways like these that the mind seizes upon analogies and makes use of them.

But while the mind thus makes use of analogies, it is at the same time guided by a sense of *proportion.* By a sense of proportion is meant the feeling that leads us to draw things of the same relative size. For example, in the

sketch-map of Europe given on page 36, this feeling has led to the drawing of Spain with some reference to the size which had already been given Denmark, or the part of Europe that had been previously drawn. Had Spain been drawn three or four times larger (Fig. 4)

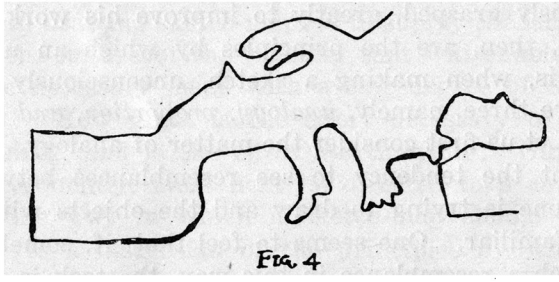

FIG. 4

than it now appears, anybody would have said at once that Spain was very much too large in proportion to the rest of Europe. One tends, thus, to control the size of objects by that of those already constructed; or, to put it another way, one tends to draw portions of an object *in terms* of the parts that have already been drawn.

Again, one is guided not only by a sense of analogy and proportion, but also by the perception of *relationship*. By this term is meant the perception that one part of the object one is drawing bears a certain relationship in position to some other part of the object. Such a relationship, when once noticed, helps one to get the different parts of an object placed in relationship to each other. For example, a very simple relationship is that between Italy and Denmark. First attempts may very easily overlook the fact of this relationship and place the two peninsulas in some such relative positions as those shown in the previous sketches where Italy is placed considerably to the right or left of Denmark, instead of being, as it should be, directly under it (Fig. 5). The Danish peninsula itself, too, can in relation to the Scandinavian peninsula be more exactly placed: rather than being situated merely near the end of the peninsula it is seen to reach up *into* the great jaws of this projection. Such relationships, once noticed, have a way of sticking in the mind. Furthermore, the value of

this habit once having been brought home, one is constantly on the lookout to add to the number of relationships already observed. The stock of knowledge thus obtained becomes one of the main resources in enabling one to gain control in drawing the map. This fact makes itself increasingly apparent when the attempt is made to draw the internal

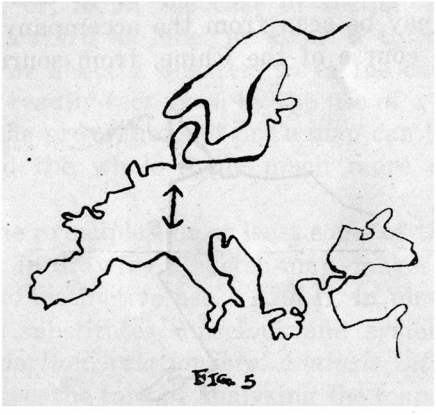

FIG. 5

features of the map, more particularly the rivers and mountain ranges. But before experimenting with these there are two other matters connected with the principles of analogy and proportion that should be considered. These matters are (1) the *analysis into line,* and (2) the *use of a unit of measure.*

Among the analogies mentioned in one of the preceding paragraphs was that of the geometrical figure. An example of its use was pointed out in the case of Spain, whose shape suggests that of the square. But a square is made up of straight lines, and, as a matter of fact, it is this analogy of the line, straight or curved, that one's mind tends to use perhaps even more than the geometrical figure, which is, indeed, only a combination of such lines. This analysis into line is especially useful because it enables one to attain much greater exactness, particularly in the matter of proportion, since, when one thinks in terms of straight lines, it becomes possible to use a unit of measure. The advantages of this use of the straight line can well be

shown in drawing a river like the Rhine. If one should attempt to get all the little quirks and curves of this river, the task would seem well-nigh hopeless. But if one attempts merely to observe the principal *sections* into which the river may be broken up, and, regarding these sections as straight lines, notes their direction, relative length, and position, the task becomes quite possible and surprisingly simple. As may be seen from the accompanying diagram (Fig. 6), the course of the Rhine, from source to mouth,

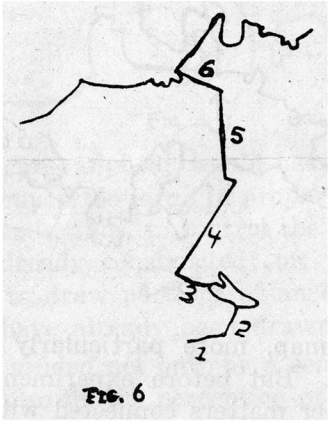

FIG. 6

is comprised of six fairly well-marked sections. Of these, the first two are about of a length; the third, if Lake Constance be left out of account, is somewhat longer than either of these two; the fourth and fifth are something more than twice as long as the third, while the last section is about the length of either section 4 or 5. Finally, if one notes that section 2 forms a very obtuse angle with section 1, that the base line of Lake Constance makes a similar angle with section 2 and that 3 makes a scarcely perceptible angle with the base line of Lake Constance, that 4 but just fails of making a right angle with 3, that 5 inclines away from the vertical in the opposite direction and at a somewhat greater angle than does 4, and, finally, that 6 forms a blunt angle with 5, it will be found that a little practice and a little testing of one's observation by

memory will enable one to reproduce at will a draft of the Rhine that will answer for most purposes. Furthermore, when working at the matter in this way, one unconsciously uses one of the lines as a unit of measure by reference to which the relative lengths of the other lines are guaged. Thus, in the present case, if section 4 be used as the unit of section 2, or about a quarter, as in the case of section half as long, or, as in the case of section 3, between a quarter and a third as long, or about a third, as in case of section 2, or about a quarter, as in the case of section 1. It can be readily seen how, by the use of a suitable unit of measure, the proportions of one's map can be very much improved and the whole made much more effective and serviceable.

Such are the principles, or at least some of the principles, of which one, in drawing a sketch-map, makes to a greater or less degree, instinctive use. And if, in place of instinctive use, one substitutes conscious and systematic use of *analogy, proportion, relationship, analysis into line,* and *a unit of measure,* the task of analyzing the map, seeing what to draw, knowing what to fix attention on, will be greatly simplified and the result much improved. And now it may be well to turn from theory to practice and apply these principles in making a sketch-map of the coast line of Europe and two or three of its principal rivers.

In this systematic attempt to draw the outline of the continent of Europe, its rough resemblance to a triangle, which one unconsciously appreciates and of which one makes instinctive use, can be made of the greatest service. For, if a triangle be found (Fig. 7) by connecting three points at the extremities of Europe, this triangle may be used as a framework to guide in drawing the coast line, and will enable one to secure more easily a uniform proportion. Thus, if the three points chosen be the "chin" of Spain, the base of the Caspian Sea at its middle point, and a point near the northern end of the boundary line between European and Asiatic Russia, the lines connecting them will form a triangle inclosing nearly the entire continent. The coast line of the main body of the continent will be found to run

for the most part close to these lines, only the peninsulas, the easiest portions of the coast line to draw, projecting much beyond them. But when one comes to construct this triangle preparatory to using it as a guide in drawing the European coast line, the question immediately raises itself as to the *relative length of the three sides.* This is an important question, for on its correct answer depends any effective use of the triangle as an aid in the drawing of the map. Fortunately, in this case, the relations of the three sides are very simple ones and easily held in mind. With-

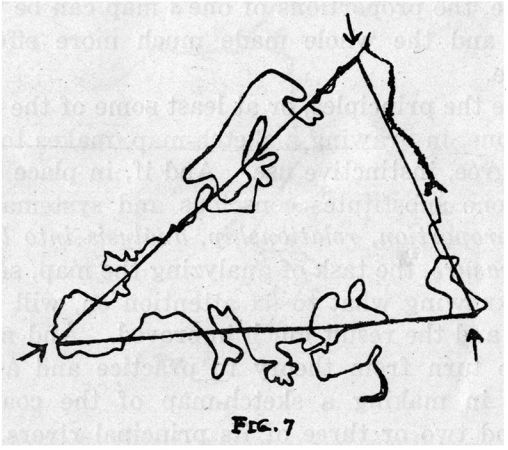

FIG. 7

out the aid of a ruler the eye would at once tell us that two of these lines are of about the same length; and if a ruler be used to get the exact measurements, these will be found to confirm the observation of the eye, for they show that the two sides are exactly equal. The relation of the third side to the other two is shown by the ruler also to be a simple one, for its length proves to be just two-thirds that of either of the others. In other words, we have to deal with an *isosceles triangle whose base is two-thirds the length of its sides.* Such a triangle can be constructed with a fair degree of accuracy with no aid from a ruler, either by merely estimating with the eye the relative proportions of the three sides or by some such device as here shown (Fig. 8). In this case, if the line AB be drawn and divided

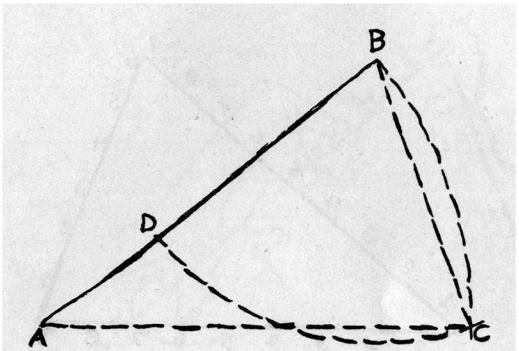

FIG. 8

into three equal parts, the section BD, which is equal to two-thirds of AB, may then be used in imagination as a radius, swung from B as a center, to guide in making the dotted curve DC. In the same way the line AB itself, swung from A as a center, may be used as a radius to describe the dotted curve BC. The intersection of these two curves at C gives the third extremity of the triangle. When this point has been connected by straight lines with A and B, there results the required isosceles triangle ABC, whose base BC is equal to two-thirds of the length of either of the sides. Doubtless no triangle made in this way, with only these rough measuring devices to guide the eye, will prove to be absolutely exact in its proportions. Yet the results of such a method or similar ones prove to be accurate enough for all practical purposes, and the map of Europe, whose coast line has been drawn in relation to the sides of such a triangle, will be far more accurate and satisfactory than one drawn with no such guide in mind.

But the triangle can be made to yield still further aid. If the sides be divided into thirds (Fig. 9), and these thirds themselves be likewise divided into thirds, a division of the side into nine units results; and if the base be divided into two equal parts, and these again into thirds, a division into six units of the same length as those into which the sides have been divided results, as in the figure ABC. By noting the relation in position between the various features

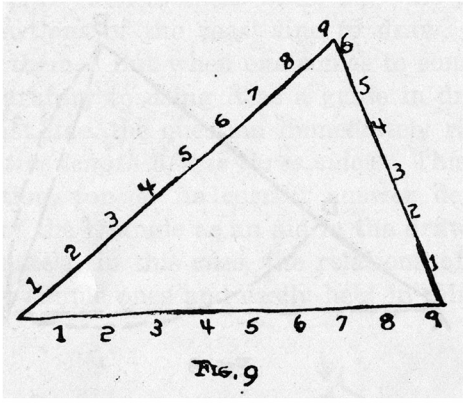

Fig. 9

of the coast line and the division points of the units the relative position and proportion of the different parts of the coast line can be attained with greater exactness. For, as may be seen in the accompanying drawing (Fig. 10), not only are the positions of Spain and the Caspian securely fixed, but also that of the White Sea, whose base passes through point 7, of the Scandinavian Peninsula, whose lower jaw incloses 5, of the Danish Peninsula, three-quarters above the line, whose western coast line just escapes 4, of the Italian Peninsula, half above and half below the line, which occupies the middle portion of the unit between 3 and 4. And what is true of these larger features is equally true of the many other smaller and less prominent ones: reference to the sides of the triangle and the units is of the greatest assistance in placing them. Furthermore, the unit which has been formed by dividing the triangle's side into ninths can be very conveniently used as a unit of measurement in drawing the various parts of the map. Thus the section of the Rhine labeled 4 in an earlier diagram (Fig. 6) is half of this unit, as are also the first four sections of the Danube, as shown on the accompanying map (Fig. 10), and the section of the Rhone from the point at which it is joined by the Saone to its mouth, while the northern, western, and southern sides of Spain are approximately a whole unit in length. Perhaps enough has now been said to suggest the usefulness in actual prac-

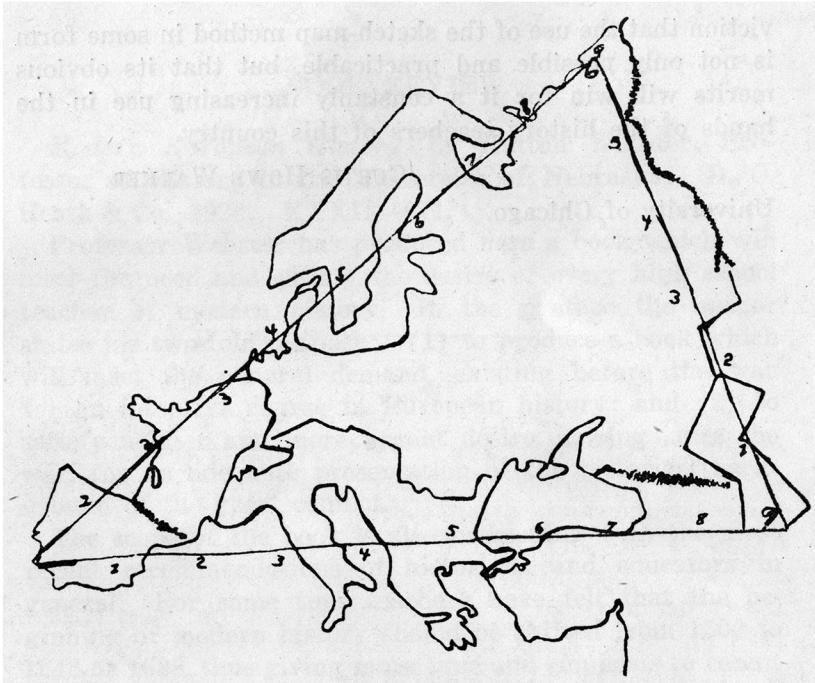

FIG. 10

tice of the principles of analogy, relationship, analysis into line, etc.

Such is the nature of the training required to enable one to draw with comparative ease a sketch-map that answers every practical purpose. As to the application requisite to this training, I can speak from a large personal experience both with myself and with students. I am far from overlooking the fact that there is a considerable amount of effort involved. Nevertheless, I am thoroughly convinced that its acquisition is within the reach of every teacher who is willing to give up a very moderate amount of time (say two weeks in vacation, three hours each morning) to a study and practice of the matter. I am also convinced that, if the teacher controls the method, it is entirely practicable to teach pupils to master and use the process constantly. Indeed, I might add, as a final word, my con-

viction that the use of the sketch-map method in some form is not only possible and practicable, but that its obvious merits will win for it a constanly increasing use in the hands of the history teachers of this country.

CURTIS HOWE WALKER.

University of Chicago.

BOOK REVIEW

Modern European History, by Hutton Webster, Professor of History in the University of Nebraska: D. C. Heath & Co., 1920. XXXII—671.

Professor Webster has produced here a book which will meet the need and satisfy the desire of every high school teacher of modern history. In the preface the author states his two-fold purpose: (1) to produce a book which will meet the general demand, existing before the war for an intensive course in European history; and (2) to satisfy a later and more urgent desire, arising since the war, for an adequate presentation of the historical background of the great conflict.

The scope of the book is also in keeping with the most recent recommendations of historians and educators in general. For some time teachers have felt that the beginning of modern history should be shifted from 1500 to 1648 or 1688, thus giving more time and emphasis to recent affairs. The War made this change more necessary, if not imperative. The text covers the period from 1648 to 1920, and forms a continuation of the author's *Early European History,* issued in 1917.[1]

Another noteworthy feature of the book is the scope of its subject matter. The author calls the book "European," but that simply means that he takes his stand in Europe and sketches the activities of European peoples everywhere. Two long chapters are devoted to European expansion in Asia and in the New World. From the general considerations of Greater Europe and imperialism, the author passes on to specific cases of European activities in Africa, China, Japan, Australia, South, Central, and North America. And in the treatment of such general subjects as the Industrial Revolution and Modern Civilization the discussion is by no means limited to Europe. The

[1]As companion to these two volumes the author has compiled source books parallel to them.

climax of the story—if a text can be said to have a climax—comes in the last three chapters, International Relations 1871-1914, The World War, 1914-1918, and The World Settlement, 1919-1920. In these chapters the historian has resolved the extremely complicated situation into its fundamental factors, and has presented the problems and their solutions—in so far as these have been arrived at—in a clear and forceful manner. The last section treats of the League of Nations and the last sentence shows the relation of the United States to it. The author says "The United States, which did not ratify the Versailles treaty, remains outside the League of Nations." That is all. He neither commends nor condemns, but states facts and situations so clearly as to be easily comprehended by the pupil, and yet with enough suggestion and allusion to give the teacher great opportunity.

From the standpoint of authorship, one other characteristic of the book deserves mention, namely, the interpretation. At one time history consisted of accounts of dynastic struggles expressing themselves in court intrigue or bloody war; more recently there has been a tendency to "interpret" history according to some formula. As a result of the latter we have geographic interpretations, economic, social, and what not. These historical alchemists of the last school have erred as widely as their precursors of the first, the chroniclers of intrigue and war. The true historian seeks no touchstone. He considers all the factors, geographic, economic, social, and political, and gives to each the space and importance it seems to deserve. This is what Professor Webster has tried to do and with much success.

It remains to consider the book from the standpoint of those who are to use it, the high school teacher and the high school pupil. The prime quality of a text book in the eyes of the teacher is its "teachableness." How well does the author get the subject matter "across" to the pupil is the important question. Text-books err in two respects: some of them kill off both teacher and pupil with facts; others—and this applies to some of the special interpreta-

tions—give so few facts, and these so intangible, as to make the pupil feel that history has little substance. The former leaves nothing for the teacher to add; the latter suggests nothing—or little—that he may explain or clarify. The ideal text is that which tells its story fully and clearly, and at the same time suggests far more than can be told. Then the task of both pupil and teacher is plain: the one should master the author's story; the other should seize upon his suggestions, illustrate, develop, and explain them. To the pupil the book is a story complete in itself; to the teacher it is a series of "texts" any of which may serve as the subject of an historical sermon. That the text here reviewed tells a story is evident to all who read it; that it is rich in suggestion, a few citations and excerpts will show. Take, for example, the treatment of modern Italy:

> The Italian constitution is the royal charter *(Statute)* by Charles Albert of Sardinia in 1848, and between 1859 and 1870 extended by plebiscites to the entire peninsula. During these momentous years Italy thus gained both national unity and constitutional government.[2]

Here are the simple facts about the Italian constitution. The teacher has an opportunity to review the unification of Italy, recall the work of Victor Emmanuel II, Cavour, and Garibaldi, and define, or have defined, "plebiscite," "national unity," and "constitutional government."

> The United States, though not unwilling to obtain colonies in the New World, denies the right of any European nation to acquire additional territory here. This policy of "America for Americans" is known as the Monroe Doctrine.[3]

Nothing could be more direct than this statement of the famous American doctrine. In the significant phrase, "though not unwilling to obtain colonies in the New World."

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[2]P. 324.

[3]P. 440.

the author has opened up an avenue for the teacher. He has really plucked the teacher by the sleeve and said: "Here you, go on now and do something yourself—I've given you your cue—tell them how the United States made a rule which everybody but herself was to follow—show how she acquired all the west and south-west, and even took territory in the Old World, *after* she made the rule."

Scores of these packed sentences may be found in this book, for it abounds in them. One other example, however, will suffice. It is to be found in the chapter on the World War:

> As Germany * * * began to taste the bitterness of defeat, the popular demand for peace and democratic government became an open summons to the kaiser to abdicate. He long resisted * * * until the red flag had been hoisted over the fleet at Kiel, and Berlin and other cities were in the hands of revolutionists. Then he abdicated, both as emperor and king, and fled to Holland.[4]

Over whom was he emperor? Of what was he king? The teacher and class can work it out, and it would have been no small offense had the author filched away this small bit of independence from them.

The book is attractively bound, printed on a good quality of paper, has more than 200 illustrations, and half as many maps, including racial maps and a double-page map of Europe after the peace Conference. The index and pronunciation vocabulary is unusually full, while a novel feature for a high school text—though a useful one—is an appendix containing a list of the rulers since 1600 of all the important nations of the world, together with the prime ministers of England and Chancellors of Germany. This excellent book should find a place on the desk of every teacher of history, either as a text or its supplement.

W. P. WEBB.

University of Texas.

[4]P. 614.